

Origin and Services of United States Committee for the Care of European Children

Nutrition

The Basis of Georgia's Nutrition Program

Nutrition Services in a County Health Program

The Hazardous-Occupations Program

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR CHILDREN'S BUREAU

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• CHILD GUIDANCE

Origin and Services of United States Committee for the Care of European Children¹

BY ELSA CASTENDYCK,

Director, Child Guidance Division, U. S. Children's Bureau

Consideration of the movement to the United States of children suffering the hardships of war can be divided into two parts, the first dealing with the interest and activities in the home country and the second concerned with plans and preparations in the United States. With the invasion of the Lowlands and the serious threat to France, interest centered on finding a way to evacuate children from continental Europe. However, the fall of France precluded that possibility. With Great Britain threatened by the spread of total war and possible invasion the plan to provide safety overseas for thousands of children was received with great enthusiasm in Great Britain. The original plan had had its beginning in the offers from British Dominions to care for children sent out from England. In June 1940 the Interdepartmental Committee on Evacuation Overseas was authorized by Parliament to draft plans and establish the necessary machinery for the evacuation of children to the Dominions. It was recognized that time was an important factor and that speed was imperative. The plan was drafted and early official approval obtained. The scheme thus developed was confined to children 6 to 15 years of age, not accompanied by a parent, and included arrangements for children of other nationalities living in Great Britain. Thousands of parents eagerly sought for their children the safety of

life overseas. It was reported that 200,000 children were registered for evacuation to the Dominions and to the United States. It was stated that parents of 32,000 children expressed their preference for the United States.

The scheme was barely under way when the dangers of the ocean voyage became apparent. In mid-July the British Government announced its decision to postpone its evacuation of children to the Dominions and to the United States. because warships could not be spared to convoy the boats carrying the children, and unprotected passage entailed a risk which the Government could not assume. Thus the movement which had been conceived as a mass evacuation was reduced immediately in size. However, the American Committee for the Evacuation of Children in London, an organization which had been formed under the sponsorship of the Ambassador from the United States and through the interest of United States businessmen living in England, proceeded with the plan to evacuate children to the United States. Subsequently, this organization received and registered the requests for evacuation of children to the United States; selected children for evacuation; facilitated shipping arrangements; provided such social information regarding the children and their families as was available; arranged for medical examinations; and obtained escorts for the voyage. In general it can be said it acted as the affiliate of the United States Committee for the Care of European

¹Paper given at meeting of the Child Welfare League of America, National Conference of Social Work, Atlantic City, N. J., June 2, 1941.

Children in England. Shipping accommodations having been made available, the first children admitted under the plan arrived late in August.

What might be called part 2 of the refugeechild movement lies in the action taken in this country.

The appeal of a child in need is always arrest-It is little wonder, therefore, that the situation of children caught in the midst of battle, unable to express their needs or to defend themselves and facing overwhelming experiences, resulted in an upsurge of interest and sympathy which demanded immediate and efficient action. Thousands of persons in all parts of the country sought means of being of service to British children unknown to them. Many requested assistance in facilitating the arrival of children in whom they had a particular interest. ganization of the United States Committee, which came into existence in this period of stress and fear, was designed to provide some form of centralized authority through which such services could be rendered and which would assure an orderly plan guaranteeing the protection of the children in the future as well as at the present time. The demands for the evacuation of children presented an emergency situation which left little time for consideration of the essential legal and social safeguards, but there could be no uncertainty of status and circumstances if the children were to be established in their new homes with a minimum of hardships and heartaches. Desire to cooperate with the British Government's plans to evacuate children through the Children's Overseas Reception Board, thus strengthening Anglo-American ties which might affect the outcome of the war, was undoubtedly also in the minds of many of the persons interested.

The Committee faced the necessity of finding a solution for several major problems. In general they may be said to come under three headings. The first of these lay in finding a way of utilizing and converting into constructive action the interest and efforts of the many organizations wishing to provide care for European children, some of which were interested in special groups. Differing points of

view were readily overcome in the need for quick action. The organization of the Committee was effected at a meeting held in New York on June 20, 1940, under the leadership of Mrs. Roosevelt. The Board of Directors and the roster of sponsors represent various religious, national, and professional groups, thus affording means of coordinating group interests. The general purpose of the organization, as then stated, was to coordinate the available resources for the care of child victims of the war. The task before it was to provide care for children from the British Isles, as the fortunes of war had already made impossible the evacuation of children from continental countries.

The second major problem and one which presented unusual difficulties was that of providing means of speedy departure from England. The obstacles to this included the limited shipping facilities then available and the immigration regulations of this country. The methods of peace time, which required a visa granted by a consul abroad based on an individual guarantee of support, did not lend themselves to the pressure of a wartime emergency. The vigorous action of the Committee and interested individuals brought the problem to the attention of the proper governmental authorities, and on July 13 the United States Departments of Justice and State announced the adoption of a simplified procedure. This provided that alien children under 16 years of age, who seek to enter the United States to be safe from the dangers of war, would be admitted as visitors for a period of 2 years or on regular quota visas which permit an indefinite stay. Children admitted as visitors were not excluded on the ground that they were not accompanied by or coming to a parent in this country nor that their passage had been paid by a corporation or association or by a foreign government, regulations which had heretofore made impossible the entry of the children. Furthermore, the organization seeking admission for the children-

- must be approved by the Attorney General for such purpose;
- (2) must give assurance that the child will not become a public charge;

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(3) must guarantee that the reception and subsequent care of the child will be in conformity with the standards of the Children's Bureau of the United States: and

(4) must arrange that the sum of \$50, required by the Government to be set aside as a safeguard against certain future contingencies, be placed in a trust fund reserved for such purposes.

A fifth consideration of special interest to childcaring agencies provides that during their stay in the United States the children shall be under continuous supervision of welfare organizations if admitted as visitors; or if admitted on quota visas they shall be under supervision of welfare organizations until they are 18 years of age or for a longer period if required by the Attorney General.

As a basis for its corporate assurance on these points the United States Committee secured, for the most part through its affiliated local information committees, affidavits from individuals guaranteeing support of the children, or support and care in their own homes, and cash contributions. The affidavits assuring home care stated that the child would be cared for in accordance with the standards prescribed by the Children's Bureau, a provision intended to assure their health and happiness as well as safety in this country. These modifications in immigration procedures were effected almost simultaneously with the announcement that Britain's Government scheme for overseas evacuation of children had been temporarily suspended!

Social workers have long recognized that the transplanting of a child from home to home and community to community represents a major undertaking calling for skill and understanding. A British writer describing the evacuation of children in England says, "Evacuation is another name for dislocation." We know that dislocation lies at the roots of many of the social and behavior problems of childhood. It was readily recognized that a mass movement of children from a foreign country to the United States presented unusual difficulties in terms of both the welfare of the children themselves and the effect upon social services for American children. How could the guest children be assured care in accordance with their needs and interests? Could such care

be provided in the thousands of homes offered to these children or would such action open the way to wider and less discriminating use of free homes and jeopardize gains in foster care which had been achieved through the years with much effort? Was a large-scale plan for group care advisable? Would it provide greater security for the children by protecting them from or at least lessening some of the rigors which were involved in adjustment to a new country and new home? Could the childcaring agencies of the country absorb the extra load of supervising the care of several thousands of children from England without impairing the service which they were providing to American children?

These and many other questions were asked by social workers and other interested persons. Other refugee children had come to the United States. Small groups of children had been arriving from Germany and some of the Middle European countries and had been readily absorbed into American life. But there was no experience upon which one could base judgment in arranging for the care of thousands of children arriving in large groups. Perhaps, underlying some of these questions, although not openly expressed, there was some concern regarding the challenge which this offered to child-welfare agencies. Years of transplanting children has given social workers experience in the problems that are bound to arise. Here was a group in which blood ties, family custom, and tradition could not be expected to furnish either security for the children or guidance for the foster parents and agencies in explanation of behavior and attitudes. Some of the organizations accustomed to thoughtful and deliberate action in the removal of a child from one home and placement in another may have viewed with some misgiving their place in this venture on an uncharted sea.

There was not time to answer all these questions. The children were coming, and the new regulations which made possible their entry to the United States specified that the children would be cared for in accordance with standards prescribed by the Children's Bureau. The success of the project rested on three pegs—the United States Committee, which had assumed

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the responsibility of bringing the children and guaranteeing their care and support, the agencies to which the Committee looked for assistance in the placement and supervision of the children, and the United States Children's Bureau, named by the Government to prescribe standards of care and to be assured that they were maintained. The formulation of statements of standards of care, procedures, and policies were developed in cooperation with the children's committee of the State Council of Public Assistance and Welfare Administrators; a committee of the American Academy of Pediatrics, and a special advisory group on medical care called together by the Children's Bureau, which included members of the Children's Bureau Advisory Committee on Pediatrics and representatives of the United States Committee for the Care of European Children; and the Advisory Committee to the Child Care Division of the United States Committee for the Care of European Children. The standards for the care of children adopted were based on the policies and practices that have been accepted and used by qualified agencies in providing care for children in the United States, particularly the standards for child-caring agencies and for medical care developed by the Child Welfare League of America. These included: 2

General Standards for Child-Caring Agencies Designated for Service to European Children.

Standards of Family Home Care for Children (for use of foster parents).

Standards of Foster Care (for use of designated child-care agencies).

General Standards of Care of Children in Reception Centers,

5. Standards for Medical Care of Children.

 Memorandum Concerning Group Care of Children (issued in tentative form).

It was unthinkable that these children who had experienced sudden and precipitate breaks in their normal life and relationships should have other than the best care offered by qualified child-caring agencies in the selection of foster homes and assistance in their adjustment to their new life. A total of 184 child-caring

The policies of the Children's Bureau and the United States Committee regarding family. home care and group care were based on the premise that these children, the guests of the people of the Nation, should be assured the kind of care which those in the United States concerned with the welfare of children are constantly seeking to make a reality. The variation in background, temperament, and special needs which characterizes children everywhere suggested the superiority of individual care in family homes. This plan offered greater possibilities than group care for participation in normal family and community relationships and activities and offered the means of preserving family ties, parental friendships, and acquaintances which a few of the children already had in the United States. On the other hand, some of the children had had group care in the home country, in some instances over long periods. Adaptation to new customs in an entirely new way of living appeared to offer certain handicaps. Consequently, both forms of care are in use; of the 870 children under the care of the United States Committee 801 are in foster homes and 69 are in group care.

The Committee, which for the purpose of evacuating British children to this country is the only organization recognized by the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, has assumed a serious responsibility of which it is entirely cognizant. The threefold obligations upon which its approval by the Department of Justice are based necessitate frequent contact with the agencies responsible for supervision of the children in order that the Committee may be informed regarding the whereabouts and general welfare of its charges. The periodic reports by the agencies to the Committee and its field service are designed to pro-

agencies in 34 States were designated provisionally by the Children's Bureau in consultation with State welfare departments for immediate service in the placement and supervision of European children. By December 1940 the facilities of 221 agencies had been carefully reviewed by both the State agencies and the Children's Bureau, and 184 agencies in 40 States had received final designations.

These have subsequently been included in Care of Children Coming to the United States for Safety Under the Attorney General's Order of July 13, 1940, Bureau Publication No. 268. U. S. Children's Bureau, Washington, 1941.

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vide assurance to the Committee and to the Children's Bureau that the prescribed standards of care are maintained.

Recognizing the need of providing a central source of information regarding all refugee children, whether coming to the United States under the auspices of the Committee or on the guarantee of independent sponsors, the Children's Bureau and the Committee collaborated in the establishment of a central register, which has been maintained at the office of the Committee in New York. For this purpose a "refugee" child has been defined as a child "16 years of age or under, who has been admitted to the United States since September 1, 1938, whose place of birth and/or last permanent residence is in a European country and who does not enter the United States to join a parent already in this country or is not accompanied by both parents."

Although all data since September 1938 are not yet available it appears that approximately 6,500 children have entered the United States since that date. Of these 3,439 were accompanied by a parent or relative and a total of approximately 2,400 were unaccompanied, including 1,584 who arrived independently of the United States Committee.

It is unnecessary to give detailed information regarding the arrival of the children. The expected overseas mass evacuation did not materialize. On October 3, 1940, it was announced that because of the dangers of ocean travel the British Government withdrew for the present its encouragement of the overseas evacuation. In deference to the wish of the British Government the American Committee in London concluded that it could not undertake further movement of groups of children. However, between August 21, 1940, when the first children arrived in New York, and October 3, when two ships carrying children arranged for by the United States Committee reached this country, 848 children arrived and became the responsibility of the United States Committee and the child-caring agencies cooperating with it. In addition several hundred children, admitted on consular affidavits, were given reception care and assisted in reaching their destination in the United States. In addition, 22 children have

subsequently come to the Committee from continental Europe. On May 1, 1941, the 870 children under the care of the Committee were being cared for in 21 States. Seventy-one designated agencies are cooperating now in their care, offering supervision and consultation to foster parents and sponsors. Generous assistance has been given by these agencies, by State welfare departments and State health officials, by Nation-wide organizations, and by scores of local agencies and educational institutions. In a program as far-flung as this, built under pressure and dealing with many unknown factors, variations in practice and response are perhaps inevitable. Schools, foster parents, agencies, and communities welcomed these children and were determined that they should be safe and well.

Since I have been closely associated with the work of the United States Committee from the time of its inception, I have been reminded many times of the values of this program over and above the benefits accruing to the children. In his report made following his return from England in October, Mr. Biddle, the former executive director of the Committee, says:

The British newspapers and magazines printed many letters from the children and photographs showing the reception and attention that the young evacues were receiving in this country. America's wholehearted welcome has deeply touched parents, relatives, and the general public. It was for them a tangible evidence of friendship. It augurs well for the future relationships of the two countries and strengthens the most fundamental bonds that should more closely bind the two countries together in the reconstruction to follow the war, a factor realized by the British people even in these trying times.

There are, however, certain other values, real and potential, which should be given careful consideration. The placement of nearly a thousand foreign children in foster care, the experiences of the cooperating agencies, and the operation of the program on a Nation-wide basis are unique in the history of child welfare in the United States. Opportunities and challenges are offered on at least five points:

(1) The creation of a Nation-wide nonsectarian, child-caring agency having responsibilities and cooperating with 71 organizations in 21 States has never been duplicated in this country. It provides a means for exchange of information and experience and for the examination of procedures and techniques which has heretofore not been available. It is to be hoped that the United States Committee and the organizations cooperating with it will recognize this challenging opportunity.

(2) The insistence that services to the children should be rendered by qualified child-caring agencies only has stimulated the examination of facilities within some communities and has created an awareness of lack of services or qualified staff. This was apparent in several communities in the efforts to provide organizations or strengthen the staffs of existing agencies to meet the qualifications. It would undoubtedly have been reflected to a greater degree had the program continued.

(3) The widespread interest in European children brought many persons in contact with social services (particularly child-welfare agencies) with which they had heretofore had no contact. New opportunities for interpretation of needs of children, whether they are European or American, have been discovered and are being developed.

(4) Many of the British children, unlike the children in this country for whom child-caring organizations assume special responsibility, have come from normal homes representing a normal cross-section of the family life of the nation whose citizens they are. They have been transplanted to an alien culture under trying conditions. Lack of information regarding the child's background, the relentless pull of conflicting loyalties, the cool, aloof reserve of children of another

culture and other traditions, the gnawing pain of homesickness are among the considerations ably discussed by Marion D. Gutman. The reactions of these children to their new experiences should be of value to the entire field of child welfare.

Is there not also a lesson in the use of this new type of "free homes," a type of care which because of the exploitation and misuse of the past has fallen into almost complete disuse? A canvass of the financial resources as stated in the affidavits of would-be sponsors and foster parents shows a predominance of homes in the moderate-income group, rather than in the upperincome brackets, as was at first charged. These foster parents and sponsors frequently represent a group with which agencies have had little experience in the development of a client-agency relationship. lationship unquestionably differs from that existing between the agency and the foster parent who receives some remuneration for services, but it nevertheless has many positive values. Agencies are being given an opportunity to demonstrate the application of principles and techniques in an area which up to the present has included only a minor part of the activity of most of the organizations.

(5) Finally, it should again be noted that "American people have experienced a lesson in organization for child protection not lacking in significance for their own defense program." 4

BOOK NOTES

National Resources Development of Resources
Planning Board and Stabilization of Employment in the United
States has been issued in three parts by the
National Resources Planning Board under date
of January 1941.

Part 1, The Federal Program for National Development (Washington, 1941, 101 pp.), gives recommendations for a 6-year program.

Part 2, Regional Development Plans (Washington, 1941, 285 pp. Processed), reproduces statements prepared in the field in cooperation with regional and State planning agencies and with representative citizens.

Part 3 is entitled Functional Development Policies.

Child-welfare Publications in the field of social services for children have been received recently from several agencies. These include:

STANDARDS FOR CHILDREN'S OBGANIZATIONS PROVIDING FOSTER FAMILY CARE, revised edition, prepared by the Child Welfare League of America (New York, 1941, 57 pp. 35 cents)

This publication presents the basic principles of child care and the need for different types of services as well as the newer thinking and standards of service in foster-family care.

PARENTS WANTED, a pamphlet prepared by the Adoption Committee of the Family and Child Welfare

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³ Marion D. Gutman: On Becoming a Foster Parent. Survey Midmonthly, Vol. 76, No. 10 (October 1940), pp. 286-287.

^{*}Kathryn Close: When the Children Come. Survey Mi monthly, Vol. 76, No. 10 (October 1940), pp. 283-286.

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pivision of the Buffalo Council of Social Agencies (Buffalo, 1941, 23 pp., 10 cents).

CARE OF DEPENDENT, NEGLECTED, AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN IN ERIE COUNTY, PA., a survey made under the direction of Helen Glenn Tyson at the request of County Commissioners, Juvenile Court, and Community Chest (Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, 311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia, 1940, 65 pp., 50 cents).

Manual of Health Supervision in Child Carine Homes, second edition, 1941 (Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York, 25 pp.). This is a report of the findings of a committee of physicians appointed to define practical minimum standards for health supervision in children's institutions in the Archdiocese of New York.

THE PARENTS' MANUAL—A GUIDE TO THE EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG CHILDREN, by Anna W. M. Wolf. Simon & Schuster, New York, 1941. 332 pp. \$2.50.

Mrs. Wolf has written a book on the everyday problems that arise in families where there are children. Throughout the book Mrs. Wolf urges a "take it easy" attitude. Children can be fun, but it is easier for parents to enjoy them if the parents can but let themselves relax. Mrs. Wolf, however, does not confine herself to generalizations. One by one she takes up many of the questions and situations which parents find difficult. She gives practical advice on such matters as sleep and sleep routine, eating, bed wetting, stealing, and on many others.

There is a chapter on brothers and sisters—what they mean to each other and to their parents. Mrs. Wolf points out that no two children ever have exactly the same environment because, for one thing, the presence of more than one child in a family means that the parents treat one child as the eldest, one as the youngest, and so forth, and this treatment gives each child a slightly different relationship to his parents,

Sex education in childhood is discussed. Answers are suggested for the usual questions that a child raises, and advice is given regarding the child who never asks questions concerning sex.

One chapter is devoted to things to make and things to do both with and for children. Sharing of activity and sharing of joys are the most useful and the pleasantest parts of family life. Problems of parents as grown-ups are stated to be at the root of many problems in their children's behavior. Parents need to look themselves over and try to settle their own problems before dealing with their chilren's difficulties. The author believes that a parent should hesitate no more about consulting a psychiatrist to get help in solving a problem than he would hesitate about calling a doctor to treat a fever.

D. V. W.

TREATMENT AND WHAT HAPPENED AFTERWARD, by William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner. Judge Baker Guidance Center, Boston, 1939. 54 pp.

The results of an evaluation of the later adjustments of 400 cases made after a lapse of 5 to 8 years following treatment at the Judge Baker Guidance Center are presented in this booklet. The group selected for analysis and follow-up study included all cases accepted by the clinic for treatment over a 3-year period—1931 through 1933—and included 280 boys and 120 girls. The median age at the time of referral was between 13 and 14. Approximately 85 percent of the children had intelligence quotients above 90 and none had quotients below 70.

The cases were classified according to the problems presented at referral into 3 main groups: personality or behavior problems, 207; noncourt delinquents, 137; delinquents referred from juvenile courts, 56. Of the total group 69 children were diagnosed as having abnormal personalities.

According to 8 criteria developed by the authors to designate favorable after-careers and 4 criteria to designate unfavorable adjustments, 91 percent of the children presenting personality or behavior problems, 70 percent of the noncourt delinquents, and 70 percent of the court delinquents were judged to have made favorable adjustments during the follow-up period.

Correlations of evaluations of after-careers with types and seriousness of delinquencies, with sex, with intelligence levels, and with the different types of abnormal personalities are also made by the authors. They note that 48 percent of the total number of failures are found among the individuals presenting abnormal personalities, who constituted only 17 percent of the entire group.

No detailed discussion of treatment data or procedures is attempted. Emphasis is placed upon the necessity of ministering to the varying needs of the individual, the cooperation of parents, the school, and others in close association with the child; but most important "are the intangibles that develop in the person-to-person relationship during the treatment process."

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The Basis of the Nutrition Program in Georgia's Department of Public Health¹

By Edwin R. Watson, M. D.

Pediatrician, State Department of Public Health, Atlanta, Ga.

In Georgia we have accepted as fact that those who worry about the condition of people in general are usually paddling the boat alone and that individuals with grave nutritional deficiencies or other health problems are frequently not concerned about themselves. In some way we must plan to elicit the interest of those for whom we are most concerned. It is not reasonable to believe that this interest can be immediately transformed into initiative. However, we believe that this must occur before a satisfactory program can materialize. It appears that almost any nutrition program must be conducted by optimists, because the changes that must occur before success is achieved can be visualized only by a farsighted person whose focus is in the very distant future. Certainly those of us in public-health work need the same point of view.

Adequate nutrition is contingent upon a complete change in our living standards, including social, moral, economic, and financial delineations. For example, many people do not differentiate between essential and nonessential items when spending their income, if they have an income. Others fail to purchase adequate diets and yet have money in the bank. Still others do not eat nutritious foods, and would not if they were served free, because no taste for these foods was ever developed.

Certain basic considerations required attention prior to the initiation of our nutrition program. In the past the approach to the nutrition problems has been made primarily by agricultural agencies, specifically the Extension Service. Other agencies have made contributions, but to my knowledge they have not formulated plans for the utilization of the information in such a way as to make it applicable to the public in general. It might be said without fear of contradiction that the Extension Service has been battling the problem without any concerted effort on the part of health agencies and has developed teaching methods that are adapted to the social, intellectual, and economic status of the people. Health departments could well afford to utilize the demonstration method of teaching which has characterized the work of the Extension Service. Most State extension agencies have at least one nutritionist on their staff. It is my experience that these extension nutritionists have gained information that is helpful to those inexperienced in the field of nutrition and public health.

Relationships With Other Agencies.

Realizing that a nutrition program conducted by a State health agency could not use the method employed by the Extension Service, we hastened to inform them that our proposed program would not in any way interfere with their efforts or objectives. We explained that our plans would not be in conflict with their

¹This paper is one of a series presented at the Conference of State Maternal and Child Health Directors with the Children's Bureau, Washington, March 24 to 26, 1941.

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activities, and that our respective programs could work in harmony and supplement each other. This relationship was established with the Extension Service prior to the selection of a nutritionist. I might add at this time that the first visit made by our nutritionist following her arrival was to the Extension Service, where she had personal contact with the group. Largely because of previous preparation, the nutritionist was received with enthusiasm and was provided with information that had been reaped from vast experience and bitter disappointments.

When it was first determined that we would develop a nutrition program, all details were discussed with the president of the Medical Association of Georgia, who was thereby acquainted with the objectives. It has been our custom to clear both policies and plans that affect the practitioners of medicine with special committees from the medical association appointed for this purpose. This is done before any program is announced to our field personnel. In this way we have safeguarded against the reactions that are likely to result from misunderstanding and misinterpretation.

We were fortunate enough to have some funds from a national organization with which to initiate our nutrition program. We were immediately concerned with presenting the proposed plans to the national organization contributing the funds, so that their approval should be based on definite information and should forestall any criticism which might arise at a later date.

First Steps.

The foregoing points constitute our ground work. Our next step was to select a nutritionist. We corresponded with many and made a choice in August 1940. The selection of personnel is a difficult and yet a most important step. First, we were concerned about the background of the individual, because we recognize that habits, customs, and living standards in our State are in contrast with those of other areas of the United States. Since an individual who was experienced in field work and who had adequate training was not available, we chose to employ a person with a southern background

and a northern education. My impression is that this is an incomparable combination.

Immediately following the arrival of the nutritionist, arrangements were made to introduce her to the various public-health activities. It is our custom that each new professional employee have a personal conference with each staff member in the entire department in order to provide an understanding of the activities of each division as well as the activities of all staff members. This provided the nutritionist with the opportunity to determine with what services she should concern herself in the formulation of a nutrition program.

The next step was to familiarize the nutritionist with local health services, and this was accomplished through individual conferences with health commissioners and public-health nurses. In each instance their specific program was reviewed and problems were discussed, whether they were related to nutrition or not. In this way it was possible to acquaint the nutritionist with public-health problems in general, which is necessary if she is to have perspective.

In planning field visits the nutritionist arranged to visit the local health departments on the day when a maternal or child-health center was scheduled. Before the physician arrived the nutritionist had an opportunity to demonstrate food preparation to expectant mothers and to mothers of young children. This method provided the nutritionist with a means of evaluating her demonstration and determining how best to adapt her demonstrations to those particular groups and, in addition, gave her a definite insight into their present nutritional practices. As a consequence it has been possible to continue these demonstrations, this activity being assumed by the public-health nurse or by the home-demonstration agent. Repeated visits have been made by the nutritionist to these centers, to acquaint the public-health nurse with the details of this type of instruction. Our experience is that this is the most effective method of reaching this particular group. Since the meals thus prepared as demonstrations are served, it has been possible to convince parents that their children will partake of the foods advocated.

The nutritionist must be a person acceptable to all public-health personnel, and this acceptance must be based upon respect for her ability. For this reason, at our nurses' institutes, which are held once each year in four sections of the State, the nutritionist was given an opportunity to lecture to the entire nursing personnel. In this way it was possible to demonstrate that the nutritionist had information which the nurses did not possess but sorely needed. The nutritionist obtained an additional insight into the activities of public-health nurses through accompanying them on home visits, so that she might learn what was included in home visits, as well as the type of instruction relative to nutrition that the nurse was providing.

Acquaintance with other agencies engaged in nutrition work has consisted of the following: Conferences with the State advisory committee on State and professional projects of the Work Projects Administration, which is composed of the State director of the National Youth Administration, a member of the National Resources Planning Board, the State supervisor of Work Projects Administration lunchrooms, and others. Nutrition instructors and teachers of home economics in our colleges have been approached, and preliminary work initiated relative to a nutrition course for the elementary teachers, as well as a review of the curriculum for college students. Through conferences with the Extension Service it has been possible to point out how related problems can be attacked simultaneously and jointly. Through the State Home Economics Council, whose membership comprises practically every agency concerned with nutrition, including the Dietetics Association and the Home Economics Association, it has been possible to mobilize their efforts. Meetings with the various home-economics associations, as well as conferences with homeeconomics teachers, have provided an opportunity to review present plans and to outline future aims. Through contact with the Surplus Marketing Administration, the nutritionist has been able to extend in a cooperative manner the distribution of surplus supplies, both for school-luncheon programs and for the indigent who have thus far been denied this assistance. School-lunchroom managers have been visited, suggestions for menu planning have been provided, means of securing equipment have been outlined, school gardens have been promoted, sanitation of the lunchrooms has been improved, summer gardens have been planned, and arrangements have been made for the preservation of food produced, for use during the following school session. Through personal contact with parent-teacher associations, interest in the school-lunchroom program has been materially increased, and results are already apparent. The Women's Medical Auxiliary has been supplied with material and aid in planning its nutrition program.

Other activities have included work with the Work Projects Administration nursery schools. Work Projects Administration adult-education teachers, radio programs, articles for our monthly publication (which have been reprinted each month by popular request, for distribution); a nutrition syllabus, into which essential information has been incorporated, which has been prepared for use by professional personnel; nutrition charts and posters that have been made available for exhibit purposes for Work Projects Administration and National Youth Administration projects; preparation of literature for distribution in maternal and childhealth centers; and articles on nutrition published by official and nonofficial agencies.

Nutrition Council.

As was previously stated, a single nutritionist is unable to handle the problem satisfactorily, because the obstacles enumerated above will require the efforts of practically all agencies. With this in mind, we have planned to utilize the assets, abilities, and initiative of almost every type of organization. To this end a State-wide nutrition council was organized last fall as an outgrowth of the national-defense program. It is composed of representatives from 31 State-wide agencies and was planned by the Extension Service. This seemed an excellent means for launching a State-wide program based on objectives and plans that are expected to reach all social and economic strata and permit the application of those principles designed to meet specific problems. Thus far we have had two meetings. To my knowledge, no or send

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no organization that was invited has failed to send a delegate.

At the first meeting of the Nutrition Council the program was concerned with familiarizing the members with some of the problems and thus stimulating an active interest in the program. At this first meeting the committees were announced, their membership having been carefully chosen by the steering committee. Problems were assigned, and members were asked to formulate plans of action. This meeting was held in November 1940. Two months later the second meeting of the Council was held and each proposal by the committee was reviewed and adopted or modified. It is planned that the Nutrition Council will meet once each quarter so that progress reports can be submitted and future courses of action charted.

A brief description of objectives developed by each committee will best illustrate the methods of attacking problems related to nutrition, either directly or indirectly.

Committees of the Council.

The responsibility of the steering committee is to formulate, review, and recommend procedures, committee membership, and policies. Its recommendations are submitted to the Nutrition Council for approval.

The scientific advisory committee is charged with determining the accuracy of any material which is presented for publication. This committee is composed of a member of the Medical Association of Georgia, a staff member of the Georgia Department of Public Health, and a faculty member from the University of Georgia School of Medicine.

In addition, a public-health-relations committee has been appointed. The duties of this committee include the preparation of articles for public information.

The fourth committee is concerned with food production and program planning. This committee is composed of extension economists, representatives from United Georgia Farmers and Horticulturists, nutrition chemists, poultrymen, home-demonstration agents, Farm Security Administration representatives, animal husbandmen, county agents, and the State supervisor of home economics. It is felt that, from

this particular group, sound planning for food production can be formulated. The recommendations of this committee were as follows:

 That all available information showing the value of food production in increasing income and in protecting health and preventing disease be made public in popular form for widespread distribution in newspapers, through radio and public speeches, and in discussion groups.

It is recommended that a committee representing each phase of food production be appointed to review all information on home food production and to arrange to make it available in popular form.

That the economic value of food produced on the farm for home consumption be emphasized as a cushion to absorb the shock of reduced income from cash crops and that this information on economic value be made available in popular form.

3. That demonstrations in food production continue to be established and used widely by all groups as a source of information.

 That because of the pressing need for nutrition in national defense a program for food production be included in all county agricultural programs.

5. That, in order to reach people who are at present not availing themselves of the opportunity to get all information and assistance in planning for and producing their own food supply, each farm person who is a member of any formally or informally organized group be urged to contact five or more other farm families on home food production.

That a greater effort be put forth by all agencies working with farm people to help those who are able to work to learn to help themselves,

7. That those who are getting relief assistance of any kind from the Government be required to have a garden when their physical and living conditions will warrant it.

8. That since the National Government is assisting farm people through benefit payments to make adjustments in agriculture, a sizable portion of these payments be used to encourage greater production of food on the farm through the purchase of garden seed, fruit trees, family milk cows, poultry flocks, and other productive livestock for home consumption.

9. That a separate and distinct fund be set up by the Agricultural Adjustment Administration for each farm, which can be earned only through the production of foods for home consumption. That since there is a penalty under the present AAA program to protect the land, a penalty should also be provided to protect the people by insuring the production on the farm of foods for home consumption.

The fifth committe is concerned with food preservation and food preparation. Its membership includes home-demonstration agents, home economists on food preservation and utilization, a member of the Experiment Station, horticulturists, representatives from the Work Projects Administration, staff member from the Georgia Department of Public Health, and others. The point of attack by this committee was outlined as follows:

- 1. Review the community cannery facilities in the State as a basis for recommendations for better service.
- 2. Urge the various agencies to increase their stress on home canning projects,
- 3. Prepare recommendations for foods which may be dried with minimum loss of food value.
- Study other methods of food preservation which conserve food values and may be recommended for use.
- 5. Assemble information on the freezing plants in the State which have storage facilities and determine to what extent they may be expanded.
- 6. Prepare instructions for food preparation to conserve food values.
- 7. Plan to make possible an increased number of food-preparation demonstrations in which the chief objective is conservation of food value. To include surplus commodities in the plan would be an added advantage.
 - 8. Conserve used containers.
 - 9. Emphasize need of checking canning equipment.

The sixth committee is concerned with school luncheons and nutrition teaching in schools. The membership of this committee includes the nutritionist from the Georgia Department of Public Health, the Work Projects Administration State lunchroom supervisor, a school teacher, the president of the Georgia Congress of Parents and Teachers, the State supervisor of schools, the State supervisor of home economics, a member of the Women's Auxiliary of the Medical Association, the president of the State Federation of Women's Clubs, the director of the Surplus Marketing Administration, and a homedemonstration agent. This committee has reviewed the situation and has offered the following as problems and objectives:

- 1. Home-economics classes could can products from school gardens.
- 2. Community canneries could also be used by schools for canning these products.
 - 3. The school children could bring jars from home.
- 4. Gas and electric companies could be asked to donate, or sell at minimum cost, stoves which have been traded on new ones. Many of these stoves are in excellent condition and could be utilized by schools unable to purchase new equipment,

- School-lunchroom equipment could be built by the following: National Youth Administration workshops; manual-training classes in the schools; boards of education.
- 6. Home-economics teachers should instruct the lunchroom helpers in planning menus, preparing food, and similar activities.
- Home-economics teachers in the counties could take the elementary teachers as an adult class for instruction in patrition.
- 8. Instruction of lunchroom supervisors could be done by home-demonstration agents and home-economics teachers. The lunchroom supervisors in turn could train the Work Projects Administration cooks in their lunchrooms.
- 9. A State supervisor of lunchrooms would be of great benefit to the lunchroom program, if such an individual could be secured. The duties of such a person would be the promotion of school lunchrooms—the establishment of new ones and the supervision of those already in operation. The committee agreed that an appeal should be made to the Department of Education for the creation of such a position.
- 10. Families who can produce a surplus above their own needs could trade the surplus to the school lunchroom for credit in food tickets for their children.
- 11. Community canneries should be placed at the disposal of schools that have garden projects.

The seventh committee is concerned with food selection and food budgeting. This committee is composed of a member of the teaching staff of the home-economics school of the University of Georgia, the extension nutritionist, a delegate from the Farm Security Administration, a nursery-school delegate, and others. The problems concerned and the objectives are as follows:

- 1. Formation of a family food budget, based on minimum, adequate, and liberal incomes.
 - 2. Preparation of food-selection score card.
- 3. A guide for meal planning to be entitled "Hints to the Menu Maker."
- 4. A guide for forming good food habits.
- 5. Preparation of a food-value primer.

The eighth committee is known as the committee on nutrition information. This committee is concerned primarily with disseminating to the public the information that the other groups make available. This committee is composed of the extension editor, a city-school supervisor of home economics, a member of the Board of Education, a newspaper columnist, a home-demonstration agent, the State 4–H Club leader, a delegate from the American Association of University Women, the director of the Georgia Public Forums, and a member of

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the Farm Security Administration. We have, in the majority of counties in Georgia, county organizations composed of individuals who are concerned with all problems relative to rural life, and these county organizations, which meet at monthly intervals and plan according to their own local problems, will be utilized to the fullest extent in carrying out the recommendations of the various working committees of the Nutrition Council.

The ninth committee is concerned with nutrition and food establishments. Membership here is made up of a nutritionist from one of our largest universities for women, the State supervisor of home economics, the nutritionist from a large hospital, and others. This committee is concerned with college dining halls, restaurants, hotels, tearooms, and all public eating establishments. Its objectives are:

- To encourage employment of trained personnel in commercial food establishments.
- 2. To encourage food establishments to print on menu cards guides for the selection of adequate menus. These guides might be entitled "Simple Balanced Menus." This has also been instituted in hospitals.
- 3. To promote visual education through slides, posters, and films on selection of foods.

The tenth committee is concerned with marketing, its membership being made up of extension economists, the director of surplus commodities from the State Welfare Department, a professor of agricultural economics, the president of the producers' cooperative exchange, a county agent, an extension marketing specialist, and the dean of the Department of Agriculture at the University of Georgia. This group has proposed the following program:

- That the Georgia Experiment Station and other research agencies give consideration to an enlarged program of research in the field of food marketing.
- That cities give attention to modernizing their produce-distributive system so as to eliminate some of the waste in commodities and time.
- 3. That State agencies assemble and publish market information, giving attention to reaching farmers and
- That retailers change prices with changing supply so as to stimulate consumption, when supplies are heavy.

It is realized that public-health workers do not have a sufficient knowledge of nutrition with which to do effective teaching. Our first attempt to overcome this deficiency was an institute for public-health nurses which practically every nurse in the State attended. Secondly, the nutritionist has prepared for the publichealth personnel a syllabus in which is incorporated the fundamental knowledge needed in order to be able to discuss intelligently subjects related to nutrition. Thirdly, the nutritionist through actual contact with people has been acquainting herself with the habits and customs of our population. As I previously mentioned, the nutritionist can hardly be more than a coordinator, and for this reason we feel that our efforts in the nutrition work should be toward bringing every public-health worker into the program, so that all will be spreading the gospel, rather than one individual. I would recommend consideration of this question: Do the average public-health trainees, both nursing and medical, receive sufficient nutrition indoctrination in their courses to fit them for their field work? I can think of no better teaching to which public-health personnel could devote their efforts.

Nutrition Services in a County Public-Health Program¹

By A. F. Whitsitt, M. D., M. P. H.

Deputy State and County Health Officer, Kent County, Md.

To get at the nutrition problems of any county and their relationship to public health we should first get a picture of that county.

Kent County is located in the upper part of that strip of land known as the Eastern Shore of Maryland, a rich agricultural section. It is bounded by water on three sides, and much of its history and activities bear significance to its water relationships and easily cultivated, fairly fertile soil. Kent was first mentioned as a county in 1642, when "Giles Brent was named as commander of the Isle and County of Kent" by Lord Baltimore. In 1942 we shall celebrate the three-hundredth anniversary of its founding. Kent is a county rich in the history of the Revolutionary War period, when the main means of livelihood seems to have been seafood industries and tobacco raising for old records show that teachers and preachers were paid in so many pounds of tobacco. Tobacco is no longer cultivated in Kent County, but its former importance as a money crop accounts for our large Negro population of the present time. Today the seafood industries still constitute a source of livelihood for people living along the bay, but more than one-third of the population live on farms and their livelihood is gained from the following, in order of their importance: Dairying, poultry raising, wheat and corn raising, and truck farming.

Kent County consists of 180,480 acres, of which 87.7 percent is in farms. According to the 1940 census the population of Kent County is 13,500. Of this number 31.2 percent are Negroes, and these had 42 percent of the births and 50.2 percent of the deaths during the last 10 years. The total population has been decreasing approximately 5 percent during each of the last 2 decades—the more ambitious of the

Negroes, who sought higher wages in the cities, being only partly replaced by an incoming white population. July

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One might think that Kent County would have little need for work along nutrition lines, but this is far from being the case. In 1934 a survey was made of all the Negro families in Kent County, under the direction of the board of education, the welfare department, and the health department. They reported only 10 families with incomes adequate for food, clothing, and shelter, according to the minimal standards set up at that time. Conditions among the Negroes are little better today.

During the past 2 years we have tested the hemoglobin content of the blood of all prenatal patients and have found that at their first visit more than 70 percent of the cases have been in the classification "border-line nutrition to frank anemia," according to Tallqvist's scale of testing. The prenatal patients come from all over the county and are seen by the obstetric consultant of the Maryland State Department of Health at our monthly clinics. Nine-tenths of the prenatal patients are Negroes, and all are in the lowincome group. In 1940, 19 patients, out of 62 examined by the consultant, were found to have a contracted pelvis, which is caused by malnutrition. Study of the food habits of these patients by the State nutritionist and our staff nurses reveals that the main articles of diet are hog meat, white bread, potatoes, corn sirup, cabbage, and dried beans. Noticeably absent are milk, butter, eggs, green vegetables, and fruits.

In the areas of the county where the people are wholly dependent on fishing, crabbing, and oyster-tonging for a livelihood the standard of living is very low, and a very large proportion of the children are below the average weight for their height and age.

¹ This paper is one of a series presented at the Conference of State Maternal and Child Health Directors with the Children's Bureau, Washington, March 24 to 26, 1941.

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County Agencies for Dealing With Nutrition Problems.

There are several agencies in Kent County, as in all counties, through which nutrition problems may be attacked.

First of all, there is the welfare department, which works with people with little or no income. In Kent the relief load is held to a bare minimum now. After the 1934 survey in which all but 10 colored families were classified as "on relief," 1 pint of milk was distributed to all colored school children and to a few needy white children each school day. This program was discontinued at the end of the school year.

The county Red Cross for several years following 1929 furnished a nutritionist for 8 weeks to follow up those children in the schools said by the health department to be malnourished. This agency has not been active in nutrition work in the county in recent years.

The Maryland Children's Aid does a creditable piece of work with 20 children placed in foster homes.

The county home-demonstration agent has 11 women's clubs organized, with about 350 white families represented. These families would be considered as a middle-income group and received much aid from the Extension Service as to budgets, planning family gardens, canning, and the like.

The home-demonstration agent and the parent-teacher association plan a canning program every September. The school children play a large part in this program, as they bring the vegetables to the school and prepare them for canning. This program was carried out in seven schools for white children. In the Negro schools the canning program is planned by the school teacher and put on with the aid of the older pupils.

Of all the agencies for working out a nutrition program for a county, the health department is the logical medium through which all nutrition activities may be coordinated. The health department is the one agency interested in all ages and all groups. It has been said that the welfare of each individual from the time of his conception till his death should be the concern of a health department.

Kent County deems itself fortunate in having had a full-time health service for the past 10 years. Our regular staff at the present time consists of a full-time health director, 3 general public-health nurses (1 of them is a Negro and has been with the department since 1927), a recently acquired nurse-midwife, a sanitary engineer, and a secretary. We also have a part-time dentist for the dental program and 2 National Youth Administration secretary-assistants. With this staff we are able to carry on a fairly intensive public-health program in communicable-disease control, sanitation, and education.

Nutrition Activities in Which Health Department Plays a Primary Role.

The nutrition activities for which a health department is solely or primarily responsible are essentially educational in nature. During the past 3 years we have had a prenatal clinic conducted once a month by an obstetrician from Johns Hopkins Hospital. Approximately 30 percent of the prenatal patients of the county have been seen during that period in our clinics. The State nutritionist visited our county with the obstetrician each month for the first 9 months of this period. She conducted nutrition conferences with the prenatal patients and with the staff nurses. Nutrition demonstrations were made by the nutritionist, and since that time the regular staff nurses or the nurse-midwife have taken over these conferences and demonstrations in the clinics.

These conferences are of benefit, but the best place to teach nutrition is in the home. Our nurses spend a good part of their time in home visiting. Our county is divided into two sections, with a nurse responsible for the generalized nursing program in each. The Negro nurse assumes the same duties among the Negroes. But her nursing load has been diminished, since the nurse-midwife takes over the general nursing program in those homes where there is a prenatal case.

I have stated previously that on their first clinic visit more than 70 percent of our prenatal patients were found to be anemic. By the furnishing of ferrous-sulphate tablets to needy patients and by diet advice, we have been able

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to correct most of these deficiencies before delivery. Pamphlets for prenatal patients, from the State Department of Health and the Children's Bureau, are displayed and distributed.

Kent County has 13 practicing physicians. Most of them refer the mothers of children whom they deliver to our well-child infant and preschool health conferences for instructions in feeding. The health director, as the county registrar, is notified within 4 days of the birth of a child by his local registrars, and thus the district nurse is able to visit the infant within a week of birth.

Two monthly and four bimonthly child-health conferences are held in various parts of the county by the health director for the white people. The Negro nurse and the nurse-midwife hold six regular monthly child-health conferences, which the health director attends every other month. Food demonstrations are made and nutrition talks are given to mothers at these clinics. During Negro Health Week and the annual pilgrimage of the State Healthmobile, additional infants and preschool children are seen. The Kent County Tuberculosis Association furnishes cod-liver oil free for part of the needy group.

Nutrition Activities in Which Health Department Plays a Secondary Role.

The school health program is a cooperative endeavor.

In September of 1938 the home-demonstration agent of Kent County came to the health department and stated that she had accomplished about all she could alone and that she needed help with the school-lunch program. Since this was a part of our generalized program we were anxious to give as much help as possible. Up to this time only two schools had adequate school-lunch programs although several schools carried on a program for 1 or 2 months of the school year. Many sections of the county would not accept the valuable aid that the home-demonstration agent offered. The health department staff began immediately to do more intensive educational work concerning adequate diets for school children.

A survey revealed that families able to provide ample protective foods may have food

habits that are just as contributory to malnutrition as the inadequate food budgets of the lowest-income group.

A nutrition institute was arranged. The State nutritionist gave illustrated talks and demonstrations to all the parent-teacher association units in the county. For a week these meetings were held morning, afternoon, and evening at various places in the county. The nutritionist provoked a lively interest in the subject of adequate diet and the comparative values of various foods.

It was found in several schools that the assistance of the nurse was not necessary, as the teacher had taught the community the value of hot food at noon.

Surplus commodities were a big boon to the lunch program in the schools for white children but were the core of the program in the schools for Negro children. They guaranteed to the many children who had no breakfast at all or an inadequate breakfast and no lunch, a hot noonday meal at least. Kent County was among the few that received commodities on a country-wide basis in 1939 and 1940. There were 1,870 children fed during this period.

The commodities received were:

Ham	pounds	2,422
Canned milk	cans	9, 570
Canned peaches	do	10, 420
Potatoes	pounds	8, 100
Butter	do	2,880
Corn meal	do	3,630
Graham flour	do	2, 610
Wheat flour	do	8, 284
Oranges		13, 520
Apples		27, 620
Lard	pounds	3,085
Prunes	do	2,050
Raisins	packages	2,740
Eggs	dozens	2,694
Salt pork	pounds	437
Whole-wheat cereal	packages	2,098
Rolled oats	pounds	880
Dried beans	do	2,095
Rice	do	1, 280
Bacon	do	1, 291

In addition to these commodities, the parents donated milk, cabbages, potatoes, turnips, carrots, and also the ingredients needed to produce gingerbread, graham muffins, and so forth. Until the fall of 1940 the teachers donated the piece of meat for the soup.

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The program in the schools for white children is handled in some places by the teacher and boys and girls in the 4-H Club, in other parts of the county by a paid worker living in the neighborhood, but in most of the schools it is a parent-teacher association project. The food, cooked at home and carried to school in large containers, is served by the parents and teachers.

The program in the schools for Negro children is a teacher-pupil program—directed by the home-economics and the agriculture teachers. The New Farmers of America, a group of 60 high-school boys, had 30 garden projects, 30 chicken projects, and 10 hog projects. Of the 60 families represented in this group only 6 have their own cows. The girls in the home-economics group can the vegetables raised in these gardens and all through the school year plan and prepare the school lunch for the one high school for Negroes in the county; however, in the elementary schools the program is conducted by the teacher with the help of the older pupils and National Youth Administration workers.

The county superintendent of schools states that the attendance record in Kent schools has been above the average for the past 2 years. The teachers report fewer colds, or very mild colds lasting only a day or so.

This year all the schools for white children, except 2, and all the 12 schools for Negro children have hot-lunch programs.

Indications of Progress in Nutrition in Kent County.

The prenatal patients of Kent County are very gradually learning the importance of diet both for themselves and for their unborn children. There is a marked increase in the numbers of infant and preschool children under the supervision of the medical and nursing services. Preceding the last 2 years Kent County had one of the highest infant death rates in Maryland. Now the county has one of the lowest.

Mothers are becoming more and more "foodconscious" for they are using in the home foods they learned about in prenatal and child-health conferences.

The Negro teachers, especially, report that their pupils are more alert and show a keener interest in school work. The white school children are showing interest in food variety to the extent of planning daily menus of well-balanced meals.

During the past 3 years the number of plants for pasteurizing milk in the county has been increased from one to three, and the number of quarts of pasteurized milk distributed daily has been increased from 654 quarts to 1,710 quarts.

Of first importance is the fact that each public-health nurse in Kent County has become a nutritionist, or at least a competent "seminutritionist," in that approximately half her time is spent in nutrition work.

Bolivia Bureau of Nutrition

A Bureau of Nutrition has been established this year in the National Department of Labor, Health, and Social Welfare of Bolivia. The Bureau will study the food habits of the people and the relation between food and health; it will collect statistics on the production, supply, and consumption of foods, and will prepare

nutrition standards for children, expectant mothers, and other groups of the population. It will also work for the improvement of the food in children's institutions and for a more extensive cultivation of wholesome vegetables and breeding of animals providing milk and suitable meat.

(Bureau correspondence.)

BOOK NOTES

Bibliography The Society for Research in Child on pediatrics

Bibliography compiled by A. Graeme Mitchell as Vol. 6, No. 1, of Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development (Washington, 1941, 119 pp. Processed. 75 cents). Titles on 10 general subjects and 82 specific diseases are included.

THE UNSEEN PLAGUE—CHRONIC DISEASE, by Ernst P. Boas, M. D. J. J. Augustin, New York, 1940. 121 pp. \$2.

In this compact little volume Dr. Boas presents a wealth of factual material and draws on his 20 years of experience in the field of chronic disease to give an analysis and discussion of it that he hopes may be used "as a basis for planning and action by government, community, and physician."

The first of the two sections is devoted to a discussion of the various aspects of chronic disease—its effects on the community and on family life; its medical aspects; and its social and economic aspects. The second section presents a community program of planning for the chronic sick and includes a detailed description of important features of a hospital for chronic diseases.

The material should be of interest to doctors, hospital administrators, public-welfare officials, community councils, social workers, and many others. Medical-social workers will be interested in the author's emphasis on the importance of treating both medical and social factors and especially in chapter 9, in which he discusses the interdependence of medical-social work and medical care. Professional groups working with crippled children will find especially interesting chapter 7 on children and the part of chapter 10 that deals with convalescent care, both of which give considerable

attention to children with orthopedic conditions and to those with rheumatic heart disease.

The author ends with a summary of the devastating effect of chronic disease and with an appeal for action, in the following words:

Chronic illness is a great, destructive force in society. It carries in its wake unemployment, destitution, neglect of home, neglect of children, disorganization of family life, and dissipation of community resources. Control of the inroads that chronic illness makes on the individual and on society can be made effective through comprehensive study and social planning.

M. W. K.

Pedodontics, by John C. Brauer, D. D. S., Kansas State Board of Health, Topeka, 1940. 31 pp.

This brochure, by the head of the Department of Preventive Dentistry and Pedodontics, College of Dentistry, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa, is presented by the Kansas State Board of Health in cooperation with the United States Children's Bureau and the Kansas State Dental Association. It is based on a series of lectures to the dentists of Kansas on the potentialities and problems of dentistry for children.

Modo de Cuidar a los Pacientes de Paralisis Infantil, by Jessie L. Stevenson. National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York, 1940. 62 pp.

This is the Spanish edition of the pamphlet, The Nursing Care of Patients With Infantile Paralysis, which was reviewed in the March 1941 issue of *The Child.* Copies of this handbook may be obtained from The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York.

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• YOUTH EMPLOYMENT •

VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

The Hazardous-Occupations Program An Administrative Function of the Children's Bureau

By ELIZABETH S. JOHNSON and SAUL WALLEN

Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau

"To investigate, to report, and to administer—these are the specific functions of the Children's Bureau." Thus is summed up the job given the Bureau in considering as a whole the conditions, problems, and welfare of children. The organic act creating the Bureau directed it to "especially investigate * * dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children."

Dangerous occupations and accidents to children have been the concern of the Industrial Division over many years and, since the enactment of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 with its 18-year standard for work in hazardous occupations, this field has been a continuing and increasingly important activity of the Bureau.

From the time of the creation of the Bureau to the passage of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the Industrial Division investigated and issued a number of reports on hazards to employed minors, including industrial accidents. Studies of accidents to minors in various occupations and in a number of States were made. Unpublished statistics of accidents to young workers were collected and analyzed. At the recommendation of the 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, the Bureau appointed an Advisory Committee on the Employment of Minors in Hazardous Occupations. The report of this committee, prepared with the assistance of the Industrial Division, was published during 1932. These studies and reports resulted in the building up of a body of knowledge and in the development of recommendations for the protection of youth in hazardous occupations and processes.

During the period 1933-35 the National Recovery Administration was the vehicle for translating the movement for better child-labor standards into action. Some three-fourths of the codes as approved contained provisions prohibiting the employment of minors 16 or 17 years of age in hazardous work. Most of them required that the code authority submit a list of such occupations to the National Recovery Administration, in order that the occupations and processes too hazardous for young workers might be clearly defined. Here again the "to investigate—to report" functions of the Bureau were fulfilled. On the basis of its research in the field of industrial injuries to minors, the Bureau assisted at the request of the National Recovery Administration in the designation of these hazardous occupations. About 175 such lists had been agreed upon by the industries concerned and approved by the National Recovery Administration before the operation of the codes was suspended. Because these code prohibitions were short-lived and because available statistics on accidents to minors were inadequate, it is impossible to evaluate accurately the effect of the hazardous-occupations provisions of the codes. At the very least, however, these code provisions and the Bureau's efforts directed the interest of many employer groups to the problem of protection of youth from industrial injuries and paved the way for the adoption by

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the States of higher standards for the protection of young workers from employment in dangerous occupations.

It was not until the passage of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 that the Children's Bureau was given the function of issuing orders regarding employment of minors in hazardous occupations. That act, which in effect establishes 16 years as the minimum age for general employment in establishments producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce, seeks also to protect workers between 16 and 18 years of age from employment in occupations "particularly hazardous for the employment of children between such ages or detrimental to their health or well-being. * * *." It provides that the Chief of the Children's Bureau "shall find and by order declare" such occupations to be particularly hazardous; such orders have the effect of establishing a minimum age of 18 years for the occupations they cover. The act and hazardousoccupations orders issued under it apply to concerns engaged in the production of goods which are shipped or delivered for shipment in interstate commerce. The enforcement of the childlabor provisions was placed in the Children's Bureau by Congress.

In administering the hazardous-occupations provisions the Bureau developed, with the advice of an Advisory Committee on Occupations Hazardous for Minors, certain basic principles. These are (1) that occupations particularly hazardous or detrimental to the health or wellbeing of workers in general are also particularly hazardous or detrimental to the health or wellbeing of minors under 18, and (2) that other occupations, not particularly hazardous or detrimental to the health or well-being of adult and experienced workers may nevertheless be particularly hazardous for minors under 18 because they require a degree of muscular coordination, stability, maturity of judgment, or resourcefulness in meeting emergencies not usually characteristic of young workers.1 Over a period of time research methods and procedures in making determinations of hazardous occupations were developed. Investigations were made of various occupations and industries on the nature and degree of the hazards of work in them. After consultation with representatives of employers and labor and with industrial experts reports were prepared and proposed findings and orders drawn up. Opportunity for objection and review was given interested parties at public hearings. Only after all these steps had been taken did the Chief of the Bureau issue final orders that declared the occupations covered to be particularly hazardous.

Notice of the issuance of the order is given through newspaper releases and notification to trade associations and unions, articles in trade magazines, and sometimes by mailing copies of the order directly to the employer.

It then becomes the task of the Industrial Division to administer and enforce these orders. Inspectors checking for compliance with the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act visit establishments covered by the act to see that no one under 16 years of age is employed in any type of work and that no one under 18 years of age is employed in occupations covered by hazardous-occupations orders. In order to protect employers from unintentional violation of the act, it is provided that they may keep on file certificates of age issued in accordance with regulations of the Chief of the Children's Bureau, showing that young workers are above the minimum ages established for the occupations in which they are engaged. Such certificates of age should be kept on file for 18and 19-year-old minors employed in all occupations declared hazardous, as well as for 16and 17-year-old minors in occupations not declared hazardous. Through cooperative plans developed by the Bureau with State departments of labor and education, State employment certificates or State age certificates are accepted in most States as proof of age under the act. Federal certificates of age are issued in the four States where State certificates are not available.

Since the Children's Bureau was charged with the administrative functions in the matter of hazardous occupations in October 1938, it has issued five hazardous-occupations orders. Each order covers occupations or industries in which there was believed to be a large number of young workers employed under hazardous conditions,

¹ For a full statement of the general principles formulated by this committee see *The Child*, November 1939, p. 136.

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or in which the hazard was so great as to justify the erection of a standard that would prevent an influx of young workers into the industry when employment opportunities increased.

Order No. 1 is of the latter type. It has the effect of setting an 18-year standard in all occupations in or about any plant manufacturing explosives or articles containing explosive components. It became effective July 1, 1939.

The occupations of motor-vehicle driver and helper were covered by Order No. 2, effective January 1, 1940. In these occupations a considerable number of young workers were employed. In September of that year Order No. 3 became effective. It has the effect of barring youth under 18 from employment in all occupations in or about any coal mine, except the occupation of slate or other refuse picking at a picking table or picking chute in a tipple or breaker, and occupations requiring the performance of duties solely in offices or in repair or maintenance shops located in the surface part of any coal-mining plant.

Most recently issued and, like previous orders, carefully documented with reports of investigations, are Orders No. 4 and 5. They become effective August 1, 1941. Order No. 4 covers all occupations in logging and all occupations in the operation of any sawmill, lath mill, shingle mill, or cooperage-stock mill, with certain exceptions. Order No. 5 applies to occupations involved in the operation of power-driven woodworking machines.

Investigations are now under way of the hazards of shipbuilding and ship-repairing employments and of the hazards of metal-working machine employments for young workers.

In developing concrete standards governing the employment of minors in hazardous occupations and in enforcing these standards under the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act the Children's Bureau fulfills the triple function laid upon it—to investigate, to report, and to administer. Under that act the Bureau has been able to develop and apply the principle that, in this period of rising employment opportunities, young workers should be given safe jobs and the more hazardous jobs should be left for workers more experienced and better able to cope with their dangers.

Florida Enacts a New Child-Labor Law

The new Florida child-labor law, effective July 1, 1941, materially raises child-labor standards in Florida and places this Southern State among the more progressive States in childlabor legislation. The new law extends the occupational coverage of the former law, which applied only to specific establishments including factory and store employment, to any gainful occupation with limited exceptions. Both farm work and domestic service in private homes are exempted from all requirements of the act, except the minimum-age standard. The minimum-age standard covers domestic service in private homes and farm work during school hours, except when performed by a minor in connection with his own home and for his parent.

The basic minimum age for employment in this State is raised from 14 to 16 years, the 16year standard being established for work at any time in any factory, workshop, mill, mechanical establishment, or laundry. A 16-year minimum-age standard is established also for all employment during school hours, except farm work and domestic service performed by a minor for his own parent in connection with his own home. Florida thus becomes the fourteenth State to set a basic minimum age of 16, which is the standard set by the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.

The new law requires certificates for the employment of minors up to 16 years of age in all gainful occupations except farm work and domestic service. It makes mandatory, for the first time in this State, age certificates as a condition for the employment of minors between 16 and 18 years of age, which formerly were issued only on request. Employment and age certificates are to be issued under conditions specified in the 1939 School Code.

Hours-of-work standards have been strengthened for minors under 16; the former maximum

9-hour day, 6-day week, 54-hour week in specified occupations is reduced to a maximum 8hour day, 6-day week, 40-hour week, and coverage is extended to any gainful occupation except farm work, domestic service, and street trades. On days when school is in session the hours of work of any child under 16 years of age when combined with hours in school may not exceed 8. A lunch period of not less than 30 minutes is required for employed minors under 18 years of age. Like the maximumhours regulation, the occupational coverage of the night-work prohibition for minors under 16 is widened and the former prohibition of work between 8 p. m. and 5 a. m. is extended to include the hours between 8 p. m. and 6:30 a. m. Night work is prohibited also for minors under 18 years of age between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. Minors between 14 and 18 years of age, however, are permitted to appear in theatrical performances or concerts up to 11 p. m. Under the former law there had been no night-work regulation for minors between 16 and 18 years except for messengers.

The former provision regulating street trades is made State-wide, instead of being limited in application to cities of 6,000 population or more; the 10-year minimum-age standard for boys engaged in selling was not raised but now applies to both selling and distributing and also to

bootblacking. The minimum age for girls engaged in street trades is raised from 16 to 18. The new law further prohibits boys under 16 from working during hours when the public schools are in session or on any day after 7 p. m. (8 p. m. April 1 to September 30). They may, however, begin work as early as 3 a. m.

The new act strengthens the protective measures against employment in hazardous occupa-It prohibits employment of boys under 16 and girls under 18 years of age as messengers for telegraph, telephone, or messenger companies and employment of both boys and girls under 16 in the operation of any power-driven machinery. It also establishes a minimum age of 18 for employment in a number of specified hazardous occupations, including substantially all the occupations which up to the present time have been declared particularly hazardous for minors 16 and 17 years of age by orders issued under the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Employment is prohibited under 18 also in occupations determined to be hazardous by the State Labor Inspector.

The act further includes provisions strengthening administrative procedures. Enforcement remains in the hands of the State Labor Inspector.

Florida Laws of 1941, S. B. No. 251, approved June 14, 1941; effective July 1, 1941.

Redesignation of States

Forty-four States, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii have been redesignated as of July 1, 1941, for the period ending June 30, 1942, as States in which State employment and age certificates are accepted by the Children's Bureau as proof of age under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Puerto Rico was redesignated for a period of 3 months pending the working out of details in the certificate-issuance procedures. The Children's Bureau now accepts State certificates in every State except the 4 in which

Federal certificates of age are issued: Idaho, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Texas. Temporary Regulation 1-A extended to 1-J applies to Alaska, where employers will continue to be protected from unintentional violation of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act by having on file a birth certificate or a baptismal certificate for each employed minor that shows him to be of legal age for the occupation in which he is employed.

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BOOK NOTES

YOUTH WORK PROGRAMS; PROBLEMS AND POLICIES, by Lewis L. Lorwin, Prepared for the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, Washington, 1941. 196 pp. \$1.75.

This study of public youth-work programs is based on the Federal youth-work programs now in operation in the United States-the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Work Projects Administration (in its employment of persons under 25 years of age), and the National Youth Administration. In May 1940 these three programs employed almost 1,300,000 youth, including about 900,000 young men and 400,000 young women. Of this number, 273,681 were employed by the Civilian Conservation Corps, 242,615 by the Work Projects Administration, and the remainder by the National Youth Administration. The National Youth Administration is the most important of these programs, since the Civilian Conservation Corps is more limited in scope and the Work Projects Administration gives little special training for the youth among its employees. This study is, therefore, concerned for the most part with the National Youth Administration.

The study deals with the problems and policies involved in a publicly operated work program for youth and attempts to suggest lines along which it might be developed. The questions raised are: What should be the purpose and character of a public work program for youth, and how should it be planned and carried out? Mr. Lorwin points out that some phases of these questions are now being answered as much on the basis of military considerations as on that of the need for youth training and employment. Other questions are still open to debate, but the arguments for or against

any particular solution are overshadowed by the supreme issue of national preparedness. He suggests that in view of the concentration of interest on national defense, the planning of youth-work programs presents three aspects: first, the meeting of the immediate demands of national defense; second, the preparation for industrial and economic dislocations and transformations due to the defense program; and, third, the call for psychological and social adjustments involved in preparing youth physically and emotionally for defense action and in educating them about the social aims involved in this action.

In connection with the need for meeting the immediate demands of national defense and of preparing for the economic dislocations that will follow the defense program, Dr. Lorwin maintains that "the most important problem is that of giving such training to the youth as will meet not only immediate but long-run trends." The tendency now is to gear the youth-worktraining program to the need for special types of skills in defense production. This emphasis may result in more young people being trained for specialized jobs than can later be absorbed in the labor market. Another equally important problem is that of the need for an adequate educational program in connection with national defense. Youth in training should be offered "a program of general education in the aims of the national-defense program and in the national and international conditions by which it is shaped." Such a program would contribute to a valuable permanent educational pla nfor youth as well as meet nationaldefense needs.

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• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

- Sept. 15-18 American Legion. Child Welfare Oct. 14-17 Division of the twenty-third national convention, Milwaukee, Wis. Director of National Child Welfare Division: Emma Oct. 20-24 Puschner, 777 North Meridian, Indianapolis, Ind. Sept. 15-19 American Hospital Association, Atlantic City, N. J. Permanent headquarters: 18 East Division Street, Chicago, Ill. Sept. 29-National Recreation Association. Oct. 27-31 Oct. 3 Twenty-sixth National Recreation Congress, Baltimore, Md. Information: National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth
- Oct. 6-10 Avenue, New York.

 National Safety Council. Thirtieth National Safety Congress and Exposition, Chicago, Ill.
- Oct. 9-11 American Academy of Pediatrics, Boston, Mass. In charge of arrangements: Dr. Clifford Grulee, 636 Church Street, Evanston, Ill.

- Oct. 14-17 American Public Health Association. Seventieth annual meeting, Atlantic City, N. J. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.
- Oct. 20-24 American Dietetic Association.

 Twenty-fourth annual meeting,
 St. Louis, Mo. Information:

 American Dietetic Association,
 185 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
- Oct. 27-31 American Dental Association.

 Eighty-third meeting, Houston,

 Tex. Permanent headquarters:

 Chicago, Ill.
- Nov. 11-14 Southern Medical Association.

 Thirty-fifth annual meeting, St.

 Louis, Mo. Permanent headquarters: Birmingham, Ala.
- Nov. 14-15 Child Study Association of America. Two-day institute on Family Morale in a World at War, New York. Permanent head-quarters: 221 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York.

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